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High-valent cobalt active sites derived from electrochemical activation of metal-organic frameworks for efficient nitrate reduction to ammonia

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ABSTRACT

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) exhibited great potential in the electrocatalytic reduction of nitrate to ammonia (eNO $_3$ RR), but the structural transformation and the identification of the active sites in the electrochemical process have rarely been reported. Herein, a series of MOFs have been fabricated for eNO $_3$ RR. The Cobased MOF (Co-TPA) is selected as a representative for exploration through *in-situ* and *ex-situ* techniques to reveal the structural evolution during eNO $_3$ RR. The structural transformation from the Co-TPA to electrochemically activated catalyst (Co-TPA-E) is verified, and it is found that the *in-situ* formed high-valent Co species (CoOOH) are the active sites for eNO $_3$ RR. Moreover, the formation of the high-valence CoOOH species can be further facilitated by introducing highly electronegative Cu ions into the Co-TPA-E, resulting in excellent catalytic activity with an NH $_3$ yield rate of 1.12 mmol h $^{-1}$ cm $^{-2}$ at - 0.326 V vs. RHE and a maximum Faradaic efficiency of 99.62 %.

1. Introduction

Operando technology

Ammonia (NH₃), as one of the world's most intensively produced chemicals, is widely used in various fields such as dye, medicine, and fertilizer production [1,2]. Meanwhile, NH₃ is a renewable carbon-free energy carrier with high energy density and hydrogen content (17.6 wt% hydrogen) [3,4]. The industrial synthesis of NH₃ still relies on the Haber-Bosch route, which has high energy consumption and high emission of CO₂ greenhouse gas [5,6]. Recently, electrochemical synthesis of ammonia has aroused wide interest [7-10]. Among them, the electrocatalytic reduction of nitrate to ammonia (eNO₃RR) is considered as a feasible way due to the lower N = O bond energy (204 kJ mol⁻¹) and higher solubility of NO₃ than N₂ [11,12]. In addition, nitrate is also a contaminant, which widely exists in agricultural and industrial wastewater [12]. Therefore, from energy and environmental aspects, eNO₃RR not only produces high-value ammonia but also alleviates water pollution, achieving the purpose of "turning waste into treasure". Nonetheless, the eNO₃RR is a complex reaction involving eight electron transfer and various by-products (such as NO₂, N₂H₄. etc.), resulting in

limited conversion efficiency [13–16]. Therefore, rational design of electrocatalysts with high activity and selectivity is the key to achieving highly efficient eNO_3RR .

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are linked by metal ions and organic ligands, showing great potential in the field of electrocatalysis due to their porous structure, tuneable electronic property, and abundant metal sites [17,18]. On one hand, MOFs can directly serve as electrocatalysts to drive the eNO₃RR [19-24]. For example, Liu group reported the preparation of a stable MOFs, which displayed high chemical stability and a Faradaic efficiency of 94.7 % [24]. However, the overall catalytic performance of the MOFs is limited due to their low conductivity. On the other hand, meta-stable MOFs undergo structural reconstruction under electrochemical conditions, and thus MOFs are not the real catalysts [25,26]. The reconstruction of the meta-stable MOFs usually generates inorganic materials, such as hydroxides [27], which have better conductivity and more active sites than the MOFs. Recently, a Cu/Pd/CuO_x multi-phase heterostructure was fabricated through the reconstruction of the Pd-incorporated Cu-based MOFs, which delivered a high ammonia production rate of 1510.3 µg h⁻¹ mg⁻¹_{catalyst} due to the

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electronic interaction between the *in-situ* formed multi-phase species [28]. This result indicates that *in-situ* reconstruction of the unstable MOFs is an effective strategy to prepare highly active eNO_3RR catalysts. However, to the best of our knowledge, the structural transformation process of the MOFs and the identification of the actual active sites of the MOFs-derived materials have rarely been reported for eNO_3RR .

Herein, we synthesized a series of MOFs using terephthalic acid (TPA) and different metals for eNO₃RR, all of which underwent in-situ activation process under nitrate electroreduction operating conditions (Fig. 1). The Co-based MOF (Co-TPA) was selected as a representative to reveal its structural evolution during the eNO3RR. The structural transformation from the Co-TPA to the electrochemically activated catalyst (Co-TPA-E) was well demonstrated by ex-situ X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) and X-ray diffraction (XRD). Moreover, operando techniques such as electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and Raman spectroscopy unveiled that the in-situ formation of the highvalent Co species during the eNO₃RR. Noticeably, the eNO₃RR activity can be further boosted by incorporating the highly electronegative Cu ions into the Co-TPA-E (CuCo-TPA-E). The CuCo-TPA-E displayed excellent eNO₃RR performance with an NH₃ yield rate of 1.12 mmol h⁻¹ cm^{-2} at -0.326 V vs. RHE. Finally, the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Raman spectroscopy, and theoretical calculations showed that the introduction of Cu ions adjusted the electron cloud distribution at the Co active sites and further enhanced the NO₃ adsorption and the NH₃ desorption on the Co sites. When used as a cathode in a rechargeable Zn-NO3 battery, the CuCo-TPA-E achieves a power density of 8.46 $mW cm^{-2}$.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation of the M-TPA

In a typical synthesis process, a piece of carbon paper (1 cm \times 2 cm) was firstly cleaned ultrasonically in water and ethanol for 10 min, respectively. Then, 0.5 mmol of TPA was dissolved in 7.0 mL of N,N-Dimethylformamide under ultrasonic agitation for 10 min. After that, 0.5 mmol of CoCl2•6 H₂O, 1.0 mL of ethanol, and 1.0 mL of deionized water were sequentially added into the above solution. The solution and a piece of the cleaned carbon paper were transferred into a Teflon-lined stainless autoclave for hydrothermal reaction at 120 °C for 12 h in an electric oven. After the autoclave was cooled down to room temperature, the precursor was taken out, washed with deionized water and ethanol for several times, and dried. The precursor is named as Co-TPA. The Cu-TPA, Ni-TPA, Fe-TPA and CuCo-TPA (Cu $^{2+}$:Co $^{2+}$ =1:1) were synthesized by the same synthesis procedures using different metal salts.

2.2. Electrochemical activation of the M-TPA

The electrochemical activation was conducted on a CHI760E electrochemistry workstation. The Co-TPA was activated in 1.0 M KOH \pm 0.1 M KNO $_3$ at - 0.326 V vs. RHE for 10 min. Then, the sample were gently washed with water and acetone, and dried. The obtained product is named as Co-TPA-E. The Cu-TPA, Fe-TPA, Ni-TPA, and CuCo-TPA were activated under the same conditions. The activated Cu-TPA, Fe-TPA, Ni-TPA, and CuCo-TPA were named as Cu-TPA-E, Fe-TPA-E, Ni-TPA-E, and CuCo-TPA-E, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and characterization of the Co-TPA and Co-TPA-E

The Co-TPA was grown on carbon paper in a one-step solvothermal process. Its crystal structure was verified by the XRD pattern (Fig. S1). Then, the Co-TPA-E was obtained through electrochemical activation of the Co-TPA at $-0.326~\rm V$ vs. RHE in $1.0~\rm M$ KOH $+0.1~\rm M$ KNO3. The electrochemical activation process was monitored by the current density. As shown in Fig. S2, the current density increased with activation time, indicating that the Co-TPA underwent structural transformation, and then remained constant after 600 s, suggesting that the activation/reconstruction of the Co-TPA was completed. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) measurement was conducted at different activation times to further monitor the activation process. As shown in Fig. 2a, the current density of the Co-TPA-E (600 s) is nearly twice larger than that of the pristine Co-TPA at $-0.4~\rm V$ vs. RHE. When the activation time prolonged to 700 and 800 s, the LSV curves show no significant change (Fig. S3), confirming that the structural reconstruction occurred within the initial 600 s

The structural evolution from Co-TPA to Co-TPA-E was studied by insitu Raman spectra (Fig. 2b). At the initial stage, the signals from the TPA ligand were observed at 630, 856, 1121, 1410 and 1611 cm $^{-1}$ [29]. After the activation of 200 s, two new peaks at 423 and 503 cm $^{-1}$ were observed, which corresponded to the Co-O of the Co(OH) $_2$ and CoOOH, respectively [30–32]. This indicated the *in-situ* generation of the Co-TPA derived inorganic materials. When the activation time exceeded 400 s, the characteristic peaks from the Co-TPA disappeared, showing only two peaks at 423 and 503 cm $^{-1}$, indicating that the Co-TPA was fully converted into (oxy)hydroxide. As the activation time prolonged, the signal at 503 cm $^{-1}$ became stronger, suggesting that more and more CoOOH species were formed.

Operando EIS is a useful experimental tool in probing the kinetics of the electrocatalytic reaction and the properties of the electrode/electrolyte interfaces [33,34]. As shown in Fig. 2c, the Bode plots at $-\ 0.326\ V$ vs. RHE at different activation times were recorded, in which the high-frequency peak can be attributed to the electric double-layer

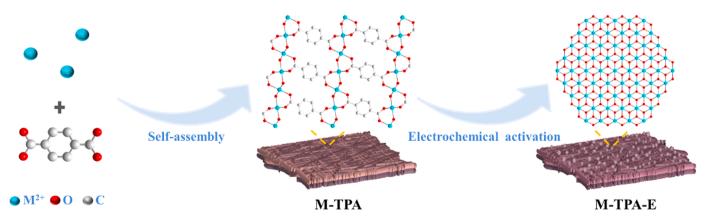


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the preparation process of the M-TPA and M-TPA-E (M = Co, Cu, Ni, Fe and CuCo).

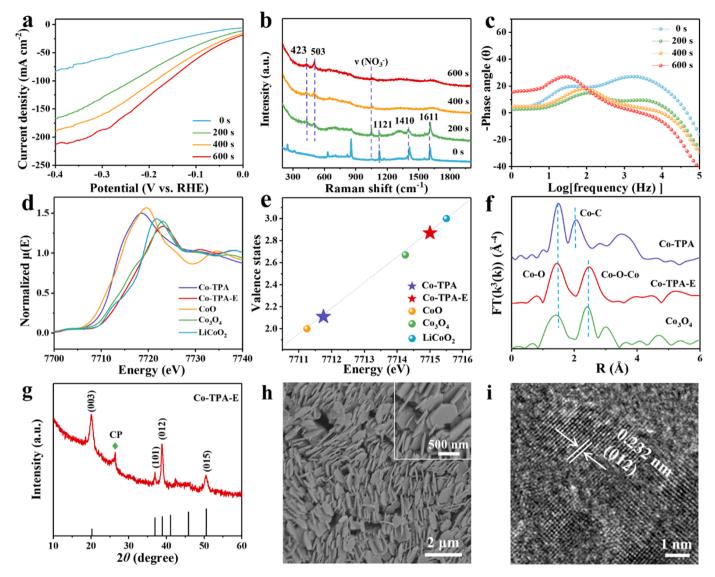


Fig. 2. The (a) LSV curves, (b) in-situ Raman spectra and (c) Bode phase plots of the Co-TPA activated at -0.326 V vs. RHE for different times (t = 0, 200, 400 and 600 s). The (d) Co K-edge XANES spectra and (e) calculated Co valence states of the Co-TPA, Co-TPA-E, CoO, Co₃O₄ and LiCoO₂. (f) The EXAFS spectra of the Co-TPA, Co-TPA-E and Co₃O₄. (g) The XRD pattern of the Co-TPA-E. The (h) SEM and (i) HRTEM images of the Co-TPA-E.

capacitance and the low-frequency peak is related to the nonhomogeneous charge distribution (C_{ads}) [35,36]. The phase angle in the high frequency region decreases with activation time, indicating that the conductivity of the catalyst increases with activation time. This means that the *in-situ* generated (oxy)hydroxide has higher conductivity than the Co-TPA. The phase angle corresponding to the C_{ads} increases with activation time, suggesting that the in-situ generated (oxy)hydroxide can promote the adsorption of the reaction intermediates and accelerate the reaction kinetics of eNO₃RR.

The *ex-situ* XAS technique was adopted to explore the change in the electronic structure and valence state of the catalyst before and after the electrochemical activation [37]. As shown by the Co K-edge X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra in Fig. 2d, the white line of the Co-TPA-E positively shifted as compared with that of the Co-TPA, implying the increase in valence state of the Co after structural reconstruction [38]. The absorption edge of the Co-TPA is close to that of the CoO, while the one of the Co-TPA-E is between those of the ${\rm Co_{3}O_{4}}$ and ${\rm LiCoO_{2}}$. In addition, we acquired the Co oxidation state as a function of Co K-edge energy shift [39,40]. The valence state of the Co is close to + 3 (Fig. 2e), which is in accordance with the XPS data (Fig. S4). Further, the structure of the Co-TPA and Co-TPA-E were studied by the

extended X-ray absorption fine-structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy. The two main peaks of the Co-TPA at 1.47 and 2.05 Å can be ascribed to the Co–O and Co–C coordination, respectively (Fig. 2f). After electrochemical activation, the peak of the Co–C disappeared, and a new peak at 2.46 Å from the Co-O-Co was observed, indicating the complete reconstruction of the Co-TPA.

As shown in Fig. 2g, the X-ray diffraction peaks at 20.2°, 36.9°, 38.8° and 50.5° are observed for the Co-TPA-E, which are indexed to the (003), (101), (012) and (015) crystal planes of the CoOOH (PDF No. 07-0169), respectively. The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images show that the Co-TPA has layered structure (Fig. S5a) and that the Co-TPA-E present in the form of hexagonal nanosheets with a size of 20 nm in thickness (Figs. 2h and S5b), which is further confirmed by the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image (Fig. S6a). The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images demonstrate the lattice fringe of the Co-TPA-E (Figs. 2i and S6b). The *d*-spacing of 0.232 nm (Fig. 2i) matches well with the interplanar distance of the (012) facets of CoOOH. The energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) mapping images show the homogeneous distribution of the Co and O elements in the whole nanosheet (Fig. S7). It is thus concluded that the CoOOH was successfully synthesized by *in-situ* electrochemical activation of the Co-TPA.

3.2. Electrocatalytic performance and mechanism study of the Co-TPA-E towards $eNO_{3}RR$

The eNO₃RR performance of the Co-TPA-E was evaluated using a three-electrode system of an H-type electrolytic cell. The colorimetric method was employed to detect the concentration of the NH3 in the electrolyte (Figs. S8 and S9) [4]. According to the LSV curves of the Co-TPA-E (Fig. 3a and S10), the current density (190.2 mA cm⁻²) in $1.0~\mbox{M}$ KOH+ $0.1~\mbox{M}$ KNO $_3$ is nearly 10-fold that (19.2 mA $\mbox{cm}^{-2})$ in $1.0\ M$ KOH at $-0.326\ V$ vs. RHE. This indicates that the Co-TPA-E can efficiently drive the eNO₃RR. Further, we synthesized the Cu-TPA-E, Ni-TPA-E and Fe-TPA-E for the eNO₃RR (Figs. S11-S13). As shown in Fig. 3b and Fig. 3c, the Cu-TPA-E exhibited the best electrochemical performance in view of the current density and Tafel slope, but moderate NH₃ yield rate (Fig. 3d). From the perspective of Faradaic efficiency, the Co-TPA-E is the best among all the catalysts, suggesting that the Co-TPA-E has the highest selectivity to NH₃ (Fig. S14). In addition, the Co-TPA-E possesses higher catalytic performance than the Ni-TPA-E and Fe-TPA-E. The Co-TPA-E required a potential of 0.01 V vs. RHE to deliver a current density of 10 mA cm⁻², which was more positive than

the Ni-TPA-E (-0.09 V vs. RHE) and Fe-TPA-E (-0.082 V vs. RHE). Also, the Co-TPA-E displayed a lower Tafel slope of 138 mV dec⁻¹ than the Ni-TPA-E (292 mV dec⁻¹) and Fe-TPA-E (329 mV dec⁻¹), reflecting faster eNO₃RR kinetics. Moreover, the Co-TPA-E exhibited an NH₃ yield rate of 0.91 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻² at - 0.376 V vs. RHE, which is far higher than the Ni-TPA-E $(0.0476 \text{ mmol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2})$ and Fe-TPA-E (0.598 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻²). The Faradaic efficiency of the Co-TPA-E at different potentials was further studied via the potentiostatic method. As displayed in Fig. 3e, the Faradaic efficiency increased steadily and reached the maximum value of 99.61 % at -0.326 V vs. RHE (Fig. S15). Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) is further used to verify the concentration of NH₄, which is consistent with the result of the colorimetric method (Figs. 3f, S16, and S17). Further, another possible liquid by-product (N2H4) was analyzed, and no obvious signal was detected (Fig. S18). The stability of the Co-TPA-E was investigated at -0.326 V vs. RHE. The Faradaic efficiency and ammonia yield did not decrease significantly during the 15 continuous cycle tests, confirming its excellent electrocatalytic stability (Fig. S19). These results demonstrate the good catalytic performance of the Co-TPA-E towards eNO₃RR.

In-situ Raman technique was used to probe the structural evolution of

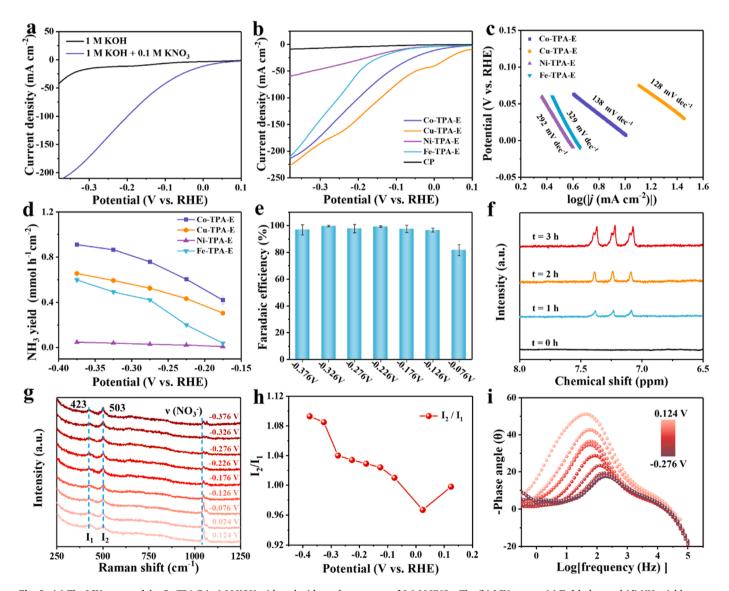


Fig. 3. (a) The LSV curves of the Co-TPA-E in 1 M KOH with and without the presence of 0.1 M KNO₃. The (b) LSV curves, (c) Tafel plots and (d) NH₃ yield rate at different potentials of the electrochemically activated catalysts. (e) The Faradaic efficiency of the Co-TPA-E at different potentials. (f) The 1 H NMR spectra of the electrolyte tested at 0, 1, 2 and 3 h. The (g) in-situ Raman spectra, (h) ratio of the peak intensities of the CoOOH (I_2) and Co(OH)₂ (I_1), and (i) Bode plots of the Co-TPA-E at varied potentials.

the catalyst during the eNO₃RR. The intensity of the Raman signal at 1050 cm⁻¹ corresponding to nitrate ions decreased when the applied potential decreased, implying the occurrence of the reduction of nitrate ions [29]. In addition, the signals at 503 cm^{-1} (I₂) and 423 cm^{-1} (I₁) assigned to the CoOOH and Co(OH)2, respectively were further analyzed (Fig. 3g) [30,32]. As shown in Fig. 3h and Fig. S20, the I₂/I₁ ratio decreased from 1.0 to 0.96 when the potential changed from 0.124 to 0.024 V vs. RHE, indicating the partial reduction of the CoOOH into Co (OH)2. Interestingly, the I2/I1 ratio increased with further negatively shifting the potential, and it reached 1.1 at -0.376 V vs. RHE, indicating that the CoOOH is the active sites for eNO₃RR. We propose that the in-situ formed CoOOH is related with the oxidative species from the eNO₃RR, which is consistent with the literature [32,41]. Control experiment was conducted in 1.0 M KOH without KNO3. The electrochemical properties of the catalyst did not change after electrochemical activation in 1.0 M KOH (Fig. S21). Also, the Raman signals showed no obvious change after electrochemical activation in 1.0 M KOH (Fig. S22), which further demonstrates that the formation of CoOOH was caused by eNO3RR.

The Nyquist plots were measured at different potentials from 0.124 to - 0.276 V vs. RHE (Fig. 3i), which was used to describe the reaction kinetics on the surface of the catalyst [42–44]. The Co-TPA-E exhibited low series resistance values at different potentials (Fig. S23), which agree well with its fast reaction kinetics. In addition, the EIS spectra of the Co-TPA-E show that the diameter of the semicircle corresponding to the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) decreases with deceasing the potential, indicating the enhanced eNO $_3$ RR. Furthermore, the phase peak of the Co-TPA-E decreases with deceasing the potential in the high-frequency region. This shows that the eNO $_3$ RR performance is more kinetically favorable at more negative potential, which agrees well with the Faradaic efficiency and NH $_3$ yield rate of the Co-TPA-E.

3.3. Electrocatalytic performance of the CuCo-TPA-E towards eNO₃RR

We have proved that the high-valence Co centers are the active sites by in-situ Raman characterization (Figs. 3g and 3h). Hence, we speculate that promoting the valence state of the Co centers may further enhance the eNO₃RR performance. With that in mind, we introduce the more electronegative Cu into the Co-TPA [45]. The XRD pattern of the CuCo-TPA is similar to that of the Co-TPA (Fig. S24), indicating the formation of the isomorphous CuCo-TPA. Also, its morphology is similar to that of the Co-TPA (Fig. S25). The CuCo-TPA-E was obtained by the above-mentioned electrochemical activation process. The XRD, HRTEM, and Raman measurements (Fig. S26) show that the CuCo-TPA-E is Cu-doped CoOOH. As shown by the LSV curves in Fig. 4a, the CuCo-TPA-E has higher current density than the Cu-TPA-E and Co-TPA-E. Specifically, the current density of the CuCo-TPA-E is about two times those of the Co-TPA-E and Cu-TPA-E at -0.326~V vs. RHE. In addition, the NH₃ yield rates of the Co-TPA-E (0.869 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻²) and Cu-TPA-E (0.594 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻²) were much lower than that of the CuCo-TPA-E (1.12 mmol h^{-1} cm⁻²) at -0.326 V vs. RHE (Fig. 4b). The Faradaic efficiency of the CuCo-TPA-E was more than 90 % from -0.176 V to -0.326 V vs. RHE (Fig. 4c), which is much higher than that of the Cu-TPA-E, indicating that the introduction of Cu ions did not reduce the Faradaic efficiency. As shown Fig. 4d and Table S1, the CuCo-TPA-E presented outstanding eNO₃RR performance, which is superior to most of the previously reported catalysts (see references in Table S1). The catalyst stability is another crucial factor of the electrocatalysts for practical applications. The consecutive recycling test of 15 cycles at - 0.276 V vs. RHE were applied to investigate the durability of the CuCo-TPA-E (Fig. 4e). The Faradaic efficiency remained above 95 % and the NH3 yield rate showed very limited change, confirming its excellent stability.

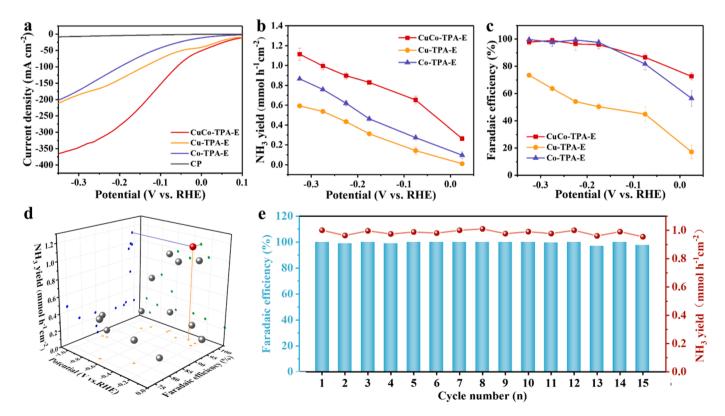


Fig. 4. The (a) LSV curves, (b) NH_3 yield rate and (c) Faradaic efficiency of the Co-TPA-E, Cu-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E. (d) Comparison of the performances of the CuCo-TPA-E (Red ball) with the other reported advanced catalysts. (e) Stability tests of the CuCo-TPA-E at -0.276 V vs. RHE.

3.4. Insights into the reaction mechanism of the CuCo-TPA-E towards $eNO_{2}RR$

To gain insights into the enhanced catalytic activity of the CuCo-TPA-E, ex-situ XPS measurement was conducted to identify the surface composition (Figs. 5a and 5b) [46-48]. The Co 2p signals of the CuCo-TPA-E shows a negative shift of 0.7 eV relative to that of the Co-TPA-E, suggesting the increase in valance state of the Co ions after the introduction of Cu ions (Fig. S27 and Table S2) [47]. Also, the Cu 2p signals of the CuCo-TPA-E exhibited a significant negative shift of about 0.7 eV (Table S3). The surface Co/Cu ratio is about 7:3 according to the XPS analysis (Fig. S28). These results indicated that the Cu ions with strong electronegativity adjusted the electronic structure and thus enhanced the valence state of the Co ions, thus improving the catalytic activity. Further, in-situ Raman measurement was used to probe the active phase of the CuCo-TPA-E (Fig. 5c). The peak at 509 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the CoOOH was observed from 0.124 V to -0.326 V vs. RHE, indicating that the CoOOH centers were the active sites for eNO₃RR [29,32].

Operando EIS measurements were conducted to explain the improved catalytic kinetics on the CuCo-TPA-E [42–44]. Fig. S29a and S29b show the Nyquist plots of the Co-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E at different potentials, respectively. All the Nyquist plots possess one semicircle, indicative of one-tine constant model. The larger the diameter of the semicircle, the greater the R_{ct}. The R_{ct} of both the Co-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E decreased with the potential negatively shifting from 0.124 to - 0.126 V vs. RHE, and remained constant from - 0.176 to - 0.326 V vs. RHE (Fig. S29c). Obviously, the R_{ct} of the CuCo-TPA-E electrode is lower than that of the Co-TPA-E electrode from 0.124 to - 0.126 V vs. RHE, demonstrating faster reaction kinetics on the surface of the CuCo-TPA-E. The Bode phase plots (Fig. S29d) at - 0.126 V vs. RHE show that the phase angle of the CuCo-TPA-E is lower than that of the Co-TPA-E, which implies its higher selectivity in eNO₃RR [42].

Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were conducted to study the adsorption energy of nitrate (reactant) and desorption energy of ammonia (product) on the surface of the catalysts in eNO_3RR . The computational structures of the CuCo-TPA-E for nitrate adsorption and ammonia desorption on Co sites and Cu sites are shown in Fig. 5f and Fig. S30, respectively. The DFT calculations show that both the Cu-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E are very suitable for the nitrate adsorption (Fig. 5e) and ammonia desorption (Fig. 5f). On the other hand, the Co sites on the CuCo-TPA-E are more favorable for nitrate adsorption and ammonia desorption than the Cu sites. Importantly, the incorporation of the Cu into the crystal structure highly enhanced the nitrate adsorption and ammonia desorption on the Co sites. It is thus concluded that the CuCo-TPA-E, in which partial Co is substituted by Cu, can function as an efficient electrocatalyst for eNO_3RR .

3.5. Electrocatalytic performance of the CuCo-TPA-E in Zn-NO₃ batteries

The Zn-NO₃ battery is highly attractive for simultaneous ammonia production, NO₃ removal, and electricity supply. Given the excellent catalytic activity of the CuCo-TPA-E, we assembled an aqueous Zn-NO3 battery [49–51]. The Zn–NO₃ battery is composed of a low-cost Zn plate as the anode and a CuCo-TPA-E electrode as the cathode (Fig. 6a). The anode is immersed in 6.0 M KOH electrolyte, while the cathode is immersed in 1.0 M KOH + 0.1 M KNO₃ electrolyte. The two types of electrolytes are physically separated by the Nafion 117 membrane [52]. Fig. 6b displays the discharge curve and the corresponding power density of the Zn-NO₃ battery. The power density of the Zn-NO₃ battery reached the maximum power density of 8.46 mW cm⁻² at 24 mA cm⁻². The Zn-NO₃ battery exhibits an open circuit voltage of 1.32 V vs. Zn/Zn²⁺ (Fig. 6c), which is only 0.55 V lower than the theoretical open circuit voltage of 1.87 V. Notably, the Zn-NO3 battery achieved a large NH₃ yield rate of 0.223 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻² and a high Faradaic efficiency of 95.2 % at 40 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 6d), outperforming most of the reported battery systems in terms of NH3 yield (Table S4).

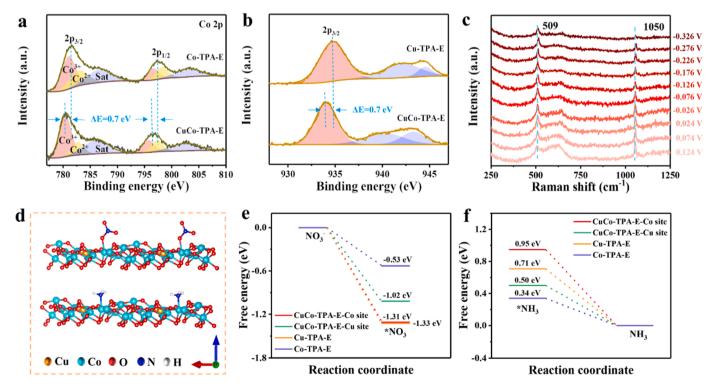


Fig. 5. (a) The Co 2p XPS spectra of the Co-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E. (b) The Cu 2p XPS spectra of the Cu-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E. (c) The in-situ Raman spectra of the CuCo-TPA-E at varied potentials. (d) The computational structures of the CuCo-TPA-E for nitrate adsorption and ammonia desorption on Co sites. The Gibbs free energy for (e) nitrate adsorption and (f) ammonia desorption on the Co-TPA-E, Cu-TPA-E and CuCo-TPA-E (* represents the active site).

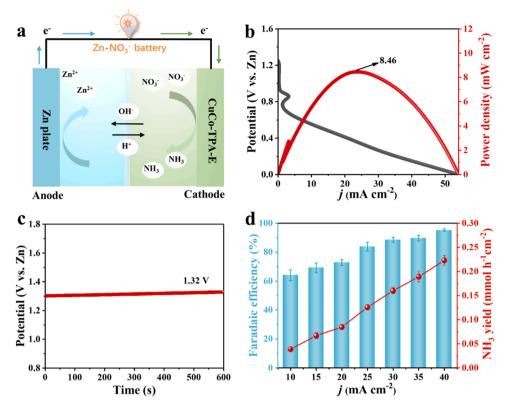


Fig. 6. Schematic illustration (a), discharge curve and the corresponding power density (b), and open circuit voltage (c) of the Zn–NO₃ battery. (d) The NH₃ yield rate and Faradaic efficiency of the Zn–NO₃ battery at different current densities.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the structural transformation of the Co-TPA and the identification of the active sites in the eNO3RR process have been elucidated. The in-situ formed high-valent Co species are revealed to be the active sites for eNO₃RR. Moreover, the valence state of the Co can be further increased by the introduction of the highly electronegative Cu ions. The electronic interaction between Cu and Co endowed the CuCo-TPA-E with a high NH₃ yield rate of 1.12 mmol h⁻¹ cm⁻² and a high Faradaic efficiency of 99.62 %, which is superior to both the Co-TPA-E and Cu-TPA-E. In-situ Raman, ex-situ XPS and theoretical calculations revealed that the introduction of Cu ions tailored the electron cloud distribution and as well enhanced the NO3 adsorption and NH3 desorption on the Co sites during the eNO₃RR. The Zn-NO₃ battery using the CuCo-TPA-E electrode as the cathode offered a record-high battery performance. This paper will not only inspire more research on the reconstruction of MOFs in eNO₃RR, but also open a new avenue to construct novel advanced electrocatalysts for eNO₃RR.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Jinyan Yang: Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft. Wen-Da Zhang: Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft. Han Zhao: Computational, Writing – review & editing. Yizhong Zou: Investigation, Data curation. Ze-Yi Zhang: DFT calculation, Writing – review & editing. Jiangyong Liu: Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. Jing Wang: Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. Zhi-Guo Gu: Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. Xiaodong Yan: Investigation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial

interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123237.

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